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ABSTRACT

This methodology for teaching English as a second language begins with a discussion of the basis for methodology, which is seen as revolving around the nature of language and the nature of the learner and society. The actual methodological approach is embodied in the following chapters: "Developing an Integrated Programme," "Focus on Use," "Focus on Communication," "Focus on the Learner," "Contextualize the Language," "Provide Wide, Diverse Experience," "Practise 'Mobilizing' the Language," "Individualize Instruction," and "Language Laboratory." A section devoted to course components covers community involvement, syntax, vocabulary, functions, discourse and cohesion, the sound system and paralinguistics, registers, the four macroskills, culture teaching, and attitudinal development. (JB)

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METHODOLOGY

(Chapter A in the Teacher's Manual of the Adult Migrant Education Program, Australia)

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1. *The Basis for Methodology*

Fundamentally, teaching is concerned with findings ways to promote learning. Therefore, in order to develop a methodology of seconds language (L2) *teaching* , one must seek first to understand how L2 *learning* takes place. Three factors are crucial: the nature of language, the nature of the learner, and the nature of the learning environment (especially the society). Insights gained from such an understanding enable one to determine methodological principles which are realized eventually in teaching techniques. It is not proposed in this one chapter to argue in detail the nature of three basic determinants of methodology. Instead, a classified reading list follows this chapter and here we shall simply observe some particularly crucial features.

1.1 *The Nature of Language*

In considering the nature of language, it is helpful to consider what is meant when it is said that someone "knows" or "can use" a language.

First, a language is rule-based, i.e, one can identify certain regularities, expressible as rules, that the speaker observes in producing utterances (cf. Chomsky 1965). However, knowing a language is not just knowing a set of rules since one can often know a vast number of rules and yet, like the product of traditional school foreign language teaching, the quite unable to communicate. Conversely, learners with very imperfect syntax may, nevertheless, communicate very effectively (e.g., a loquacious two year old child or a second language learner who "works around" unknown structures to express himself or to extrapolate meaning from context).

Perhaps the most fundamental and distinctive characteristic of language is its creativity (cf. Chomsky 1965:6;1959:335).This characteristic exists because of the rule-based nature of language: utterances are produced by the application of rules to produce an idfinite variety of sentence forms. Having internalized the rules of the language, the speaker does not just reiterate previously memorized sentences but applies the rules to produce or understand new ones.

Language varies from context to context (cf. Joos 1967: Crystal and Davy 1969). To say that someone "knows" a language really means that he knows how to communicate in certian contexts. Even a native-speaking undergraduate may, for example, have great difficulty with the language of the first linguistics text he reads, the linquist may comprehend little of a conversation on the circuitry of a telephone exchange, or an American may fail to understand a radio broadcast of a cricket test. Similarly, all teachers have encountered well-educated, adult learners who have followed the normal ESL courses but are still quite unable to operate effectively in the profession for which, but for relevant English skills, they are fully trained. A language is, then, a set of varieties and registers and a learner's proficiency is largely limited to those varieties or registers he has encountered or been taught.

Further, a language is not just a list of words and syntactic rules. Rather, knowing a language means knowing how to use it to achieve certain tasks, i.e., to carry out certain functions (cf. Halliday 1973,1975)

Language functions (as used in the literature of second language teaching) vary in complexity, ranging over such tasks as seeking or conveying information, establishing relationships, greeting, seeking permission, identifying, letter-writing, translation, or typewriting (cf. Halliday 1969; Van Ek 1976; James and Rouve 1973). In other words, to know language exponents or items is not enough but one must also be able to mobilize them to achieve desired ends, to carry out necessary tasks in culturally acceptable ways. Thus, language is purpose-based and function-based. It is also meaning-based in that, in carrying out those tasks, the language is essentially being used to convey meaning. In addition, the language through which the functions are realized varies from context to context and medium to medium. Hence, a learner may well know how to greet or farewell using oral language but be quite unable to carry out such tasks in an official letter.

In addition, language is more than a sequence of words and sentences; unification and thematic development are achieved through the features of cohesion and discourse (see Kaplan 1972; Halliday and Hasan 1976) which link words, sentences and parts of texts into a meaningful whole. The holistic nature of communication acts is evident from the earliest emergence of language in child learners who use holophrastic forms to communicate ideas that, in adults, would require often quite complex and related utterances (e.g., "Dolly", accompanied by a frown and shake of the head may occur where an adult would say, "Take that doll away. I don't want it."). As the child's language continues its hierarchic development, so sentence structure and discourse structure becomes filled out and more clearly marked by, respectively, function words and such features of cohesion and discourse as pronouns or connectives. It is worth noting how L2 teaching that focusses on words or discrete sentences seems to produce learners unable to handle texts, obsessed with discrete words, and unable to grasp lines of argument (see Ingram 1977).

1.2 *The Nature of the Learner and Society*

In considering the nature of the learner and of society, it is particularly important to consider the strategies the learner uses to master a language and the effect on his learning of the society or environment within which his learning takes place.

Language Learning Strategies

Unfortunately, developmental psycholinguistics is not very far advanced in elucidating how a learner acquires languages other than his first. Even for first language (L1) acquisition there is little incontrovertible information. Nevertheless, by perusing the literature, one can identify some of the strategies that learners use. One might want to question the applicability of child L1 acquisition to adult L2 learning and yet, in perusing the studies in the reading lists that accompany this chapter, one is continually struck by the similarity of the findings. In any case, in looking at natural language acquisition, one is basically seeking insights into the learning process that might assist teachers in developing methodology (see Ingram, in press). Clearly, looking at L1 acquisition is more likely to provide useful insights than looking at other activities (playing squash, for instance, teasing rats, or pressing levers).

In perusing the literature, various "strategies", general "action tendencies", or characteristics of approach emerge. Here, we shall do little more than list the more important ones but, in the accompanying reading lists, readers will find psycholinguistic studies discussed that justify and further elucidate them.

1. *All people are endowed with innate mechanisms (i.e. natural language learning processes) that enable them to organise and internalize the language data they experince.* These innate mechanisms (which Chomsky(1965:27-37, 43-59) called the "language acquisition device") play an essential part in language acquisition. The teacher's task is to provide the conditions in which these natural learning processes can operate most effectively.

2. *Language is learned, not taught.* This is a corollary of the first "strategy". It highlights the fact that the learner is central in the process and that what the teacher does is provide and help to systematize the data from which the learner learns. Without the active involvement of the learner, no amount of lecturing or talking by the teacher will turn a non-speaker into a proficient speaker.

3. *The learner is an active participant, not a passive recipient.* Granted motivation, the learner is an active seeker after knowledge, one whose innate processes enable him to gradually re-create the language for himself. He is not only a passive recipient who ingests knowledge as if he is an empty vessel being filled (cf. Freire 1970:26; Ingram 1976:76-77). If the active working out of the language is a central learning process, then the learner must be involved in initiating language or utterances, in trying out the language, for himself: he is not "active" in this sense if he is simply mouthing pattern drills and, in fact, there is strong evidence that imitation and passive repetition are of limited value in L2 learning (e.g., Carroll 1967; 1967a:202-203; Lee et al. 1970:120-121).

4. *Language is learned through use.* The more a learner tries to use the language, the more rapidly he masters it: language is learned through use. Thus, in Nelson's L1 study (e.g., 1973:104, 112), it was the children who talked most with least "corrective" hinderance from adults who progressed most rapidly and Carroll's studies (e.g., 1967a; 1967:136, 137, 139, 141, 148, 200, 203, 205) show conclusively that the amount of use the L2 learner makes of the language is the most potent variable in determining the outcome of his learning. Acceptance of this fact, that language is learned through use, completely reverses the usual L2 teacher's approach in which communicative use of the language is characteristically delayed until the language has been learned.

5. *Language is learned as a means, not as an end in itself.* One corollary of the last strategy is that language learning is best promoted when the language is being used to achieve some purpose and is not being learned or practised solely for its own sake.

Observing "Nigel's" language, for instance, Halliday (1975:43) specifically rejects the notion that he was simply practising language but rather he used it as a tool to learn about and interact with his environment. Cazden observes that parents and children focus on content rather than language structure yet children learn structure while, paradoxically, in the L2 class, teachers and students focus on structure and much of what is taught is not learned (see Dulay and Burt 1974:135). Futhermore, if language acquires meaning through the uses to which it is put (cf. Halliday 1974, 1975; Ingram 1976), it must be used purposefully in things of importance to the learner to acquire meaning or to exist at all except as a sort of verbal algebra. Freire has stressed this aspect of language in discussing the education of suppressed peoples

> *Insofar as language is impossible without thought, and language and thought are impossible without the world to which they refer, the human word is more than mere vocabulary - it is word-and-action...*
>
> *...Speaking is not a time act if it is not at the same time associated with the might of self-expression and world-expression, of creating and re-creating, of deciding and choosing and ultimately participating in society's historical process.* (Freire 1970:29-30)

6. *Language learning is function learning.* Language is a system of meanings and the meaning is what the language can be made to do or can be used for. In other words, language exists in an external context of purpose or, as observed earlier, to carry out identifiable language tasks or functions. Halliday's studies show, in fact, that language acquisition can be seen as function mastery, i.e., the child is learning how to use the language to achieve certain tasks (cf. Halliday 1974:16). Grammar is learned as the child tries to modify his language to accommodate its functional potential, i.e., functions are primary and, in seeking ways to express them, the child learns syntax and vocabulary (cf. Halliday 1975:48). Second language studies suggest that this is so for L2 learners, also. Savignon (1972:51), for example, found that L2 learners actually achieved greater mastery of syntax in courses based on functions or "communicative skills" than in courses focussing specifically on formal drills. In any case, knowledge of how sentences are composed does not necessarily lead to knowledge of how they or their exponents are used in communication (cf. Widdowson 1972). In addition, there is accumulating evidence from practice that advanced L2 courses based on a functional approach are more effective than traditional "remedial" courses (e.g., Cowie and Heaton 1977).

7. *The learner focuses on communication of meaning.* During natural language use and natural learning, the learner's aim is generally to communicate and not just to produce language. As the learner seeks to comprehend or to convey meaning, he becomes aware of the semantic effect and communicative adequacy of words, structures and other features of the language. In addition, it is the desire to communicate that motivates language learning. This is seen with all learners who, as they strive without success to communicate an idea, re-word and re-structure their utterances until they do communicate.

8. *The learner seeks, imposes and learns rules, progressively modifying his developing rule system with experience and use of the language.* The L2 learner, like the L1 learner, creates his own rule system following his innate predispositions and moving towards the model of the language that he experiences (cf. Richards 1971; Kessler 1971; Cazden et al.1975); the "errors" that he makes reflect the state of development of his evolving rule system and are part of his "interlanguage", the interim form that his L2 takes in the course of development (cf. Selinker 1972). It is essentially the process of observing the language, perceiving regularities, systematizing it by imposing rules, and by generalizing the rules to other instances that the learner masters the grammatical system of the language (cf. Wakefield 1974; Miller 1958; Dulay and Burt 1974a:254). It is a creative process in which he is continually trying out rules, modifying them, and gradually developing towards the model of the language he experiences (cf. Chomsky 1965:25, 27, 32, 33; Richards 1973:116; Rosansky 1975:70; Selinker 1972).

9. *Language is learned through social interaction.* "Meaning" does not exist as a discrete entity but the meaning of any item or utterance exists only in relation to the total semantic structure, image of reality, or model of the world, of the speakers of the language and the way in which they break it up. The system of meanings underlying a language is, thus, the model of reality held by the members of the society using the language; the act of "meaning" is, therefore, a social act in which speakers assume or manipulate meanings held by their society and learning language is learning how to mean in a particular society (cf. Halliday 1975:139-140). Hence, interaction with speakers of the language is essential if a learner is to acquire the language's semantic system (cf. ibid.:104, 106). In addition, we have already seen that language is learned through use in communicating with others. In Halliday's terms, language is "a form of interaction... learnt through interaction" (Halliday 1974:15). In fact, studies of language learning show that the more social interaction occurs, the more rapidly proficiency develops (cf. Nelson 1973:31, 70, 94, 107-108; Francis 1975:56-61 Cambourne 1971, 1973; Milon 1974;143; Corder 1975.

10. *Wide, diverse experience promotes language learning.* Even though, in the description of language learning presented here, the main contribution comes from the learner, experience is needed to stimulate the natural processes and provide the data that feed the learning processes. Those factors that lead to extensive and varied language experience correlate with rapid development in both L1 and L2 learning (see Nelson 1973:3, 58, 62, 95-96; Brown et al.1969:151-152; Francis 1975:51, 52, 62; Carroll 1967a:200, 203, 205).

11. *Extensive, active listening is highly beneficial for Language learning.*
In L1 learning, considerable listening experience occurs before the child utters new forms and early listening may be crucial in laying down the language's rhythmic pattern and its suprasegmental features (cf. Nelson 1973:81). Similarly, L2 studies have shown that vast listening experience is very beneficial (cf. Postovsky 1970; 1974; Carroll 1973:357; Wakefield et al. 1974).

12. *Learning best takes place in a receptive, accepting environment.*
We have already observed that the learner must be free to initiate language and to try it out for himself. In Nelson's study of L1 learning (1973), the child in the most accepting circumstances progressed most rapidly while the one who received most feedback to correct her "error." progressed most slowly. Other studies also show that corrective feedback has little favourable effect (e.g., Fraser et al. 1963; McNeill 1966:69, 1970:106-107). Similarly, in L2 learning, though some feedback is necessary (e.g. Krashen and Seliger 1976), it is also important that the learner experience a receptive, accepting environment in which he is encouraged to use the language without his expression being stifled by fear of errors (e.g., Richards 1972:161-163; Burstall 1974:225, 227).

13. *Language mastery may occur through both formal and informal learning.*
L2 *acquisition* (i.e., involving the natural processes) occurs in informal situations where the learner is actively involved in trying to communicate. L2 *learning* occurs typically (through not only) in formal, classroom situations where rules are isolated, feedback is provided, and the learner's ability to consciously monitor his own language production is developed (cf. Krashen 1976). Formal learning assumes increased importance beyond puberty when rational learning processes become more important in brain functioning (cf. Penfield 1953, 1964). Both formal and informal situations contribute to the total learning experience, formal learning providing data on which the natural learning processes operate. Methods that co-ordinate acquisition and learning may promote more efficient mastery of the language (cf. Krashen 1976), especially where formal learning is directed at those structures and functions developmentally most relevant to the learner's natural schedule, i.e., to those forms he is "ready" to learn and for which he experiences need (cf. Ingram 1976:72; Bailey et al. 1974:243; Kessler 1971:99). This can most readily occur when formal learning is built around the learner's own needs as he perceives them while he is trying to use the language.

14. *Language exists and is learned in context.* Throughout the literature on child language learning, the close relationship between the language and its context is stressed. Language exists in a context of meanings, in a context of purpose, and in an environmental context. Halliday states:

> *We do not experience language in isolation - if we did we would not recognize it as language - but always in relation to a scenario, some background of persons and actions and events from which the things which are said derive their meanings.*
>
> (Halliday 1974:28)

Bloom (1970:233) also stresses the contextualization of a child's speech, its dependence on environmental stimuli, and the need for

the child to perceive critical aspects of contexts in order to understand and generalize the use of structures and to elucidate meaning (cf. also Francis 1975:37, 46, 50, 64). Thus, the child learner's language is firmly anchored in experience and context, welding the semantic relationship between words and things. This contrasts with the abstract, contextually impoverished nature of much traditional second language teaching and we have already observed the importance of rich, diverse language experience and an accepting environment. In brief, language exists and is learned in context. For successful L2 learning to occur, the language must be experienced and used in diverse situations for significant communicative purposes.

Language and Culture

In particular, language exists within a cultural context. In Halliday's terms, culture is "a system of meanings, a semiotic system" (Halliday 1975:66). It is the fundamental set of meanings, of observations on reality, of observed relationships, and of ways of dealing with reality, which constitutes the accumulated knowledge of the society and provides the meaning for any situation or event (cf. Halliday 1974:4; 1975:36, 121). It includes the way of life, beliefs, habits and knowledge of a people and is both individual and general: it transcends individuals but is lived out by individuals within social groups (cf. Kleinjans 1972:5; Keesing 1974:84, 91; Goodenough 1963:263). It is realized in, and is transmitted from person to person through, the language. Hence, the language and culture are closely integrated and interdependent, each reflecting the structure of the other and one cannot be learned without the other (Halliday 1974:120, 131-132). This strengthens the view expressed earlier that language must be experienced and learned in social interaction. It also emphasizes the importance of integrating language learning and culture learning if the L2 is to operate as a language of communicative value. Savignon (1972:55-56), in fact, found that, although linguistic competence (i.e., knowledge of the rules) was not affected by culture learning, communicative competence (i.e., the ability to use the language for communication) was. In any case, if an aim of L2 teaching is to develop the learner's ability to "think in the language", then the learning of culture (i.e., the ways of thinking, believing, feeling and acting of a people (cf. Kleinjans 1972:16) is an essential part of language learning. In short, the L2 must be taught in its total cultural context (cf. Saville-Troike 1974:1) and an "integrated" approach is recommended in the programme outlined in this manual.

The Power of the Learner

We have observed that language learning is an active, dynamic and heuristic process where the focus falls on the learner and his purposeful use of the language. It is the antithesis of passive or receptive approaches which focus on the teacher and his presentation or "outpouring" of knowledge. Methods of the latter type have traditionally been used in L2 teaching (whether grammar-translation, audiolingual or "situational"). They imply that the learner cannot initiate action from his own resources, that complete knowledge of L2 vocabulary and syntax precedes communicative competence, that the learners must be passive and, by extension,

that they must adapt to the world rather than critically examine or seek to change it (cf. Freire 1970:23-24, 43-44; 1970a: 44-47, 49).

Rather than being concerned with "deposit-making" as in audio-lingual or traditional methods, L2 teaching should encourage the learner to use and develop his own language learning capacities his own ability to solve language learning problems. It will do so as the learner is confronted with communication problems as he is involved in real communication situations of significance to himself and, eventually, to the society in which he lives. By so doing, this approach develops the learner's innate, creative language learning capacities and perceptive powers making him independent rather than dependent. It makes the language learning situation more vitally important by relating it to his needs and interests. At the same time, it continually shows the learner that he can communicate, and must observe, find out for himself and invent if he is momentarily at a loss. Thus, the approach recommended breaks down passivity and dependence and frees the learner from the "vicious circle" in which he cannot act until he can avoid errors even though it is by speaking and making errors that he learns. It also establishes for the learner clear objectives that directly relate to his ability to cope in the society, to satisfy his immediate and longer-term needs, and to change his own situation. In so doing, L2 teaching is made relevant to the learner's needs and the learner's motivation is greatly increased as he perceives himself as a being capable of acting (especially of communicating and learning) and as he perceives his real needs being met. In any case, this deliberate choice of methods that foster the learner's ability to learn for himself is essential in courses (such as the "on-arrival" programmes) that aim at developing a basic minimum of language proficiency with the tacit expectation that learning will continue after the programme is left.

11. *Methodology*

Having considered some of the fundamental factors that determine how an L2 is learned, we are able now to develop a methodology. (1) It must be stressed that we are not concerned here to outline techniques, however important they are in translating a methodology into actual teaching. Numerous techniques suggest themselves; the ones chosen will depend on the methodology but also on the teacher, the situation in which the teaching occurs, and the particular characteristics of the students (e.g., their age, aptitude, level, personalities, education, and language background). Instead of trying to dictate techniques to professionally trained teachers, it is preferable to show them the methodological basis on which they can more rationally develop and evaluate their own techniques.

11.1 *Developing an Integrated Programme*

In all teaching, if learning is not to be dissipated in fragmented or desultory activities, it is essential that the total programme be coherent and integrated. This is particularly important where, as is recommended here, emphasis falls on learning through use and on responding to the learners' needs.

The first means to establish a coherent and integrated programme is to clearly establish the course's goals and objectives. The term "goals" as used in this manual refer to the long-term or overall aims that lie within the path to native-like proficiency. They are

They are the points to which, as one stands off from the teaching programme, the learning activities and experience of the students can be seen to be leading them. They are identified in terms of the language behaviour that the learner manifests in the course of normal interaction. The ultimate goal is native-like language behaviour or native-like proficiency. Few second language learners ever attain such proficiency unless they start at a very young age and, through living in the L2 environment or through some hours of tuition, have very extensive experience of the language. Intermediate points along the path to native-like proficiency can be identified as goals for most learners, dependent on their point of entry, length of course, aptitude, learning environment, and so on. Different levels of development of language proficiency are spelt out in the Australian Language Proficiency Ratings Scale (ALPR), which provides therefore, a context within which goals can be identified. Please refer to the chapter on the ALPR for further discussion on the nature of the scale and the status of the intermediate points.

(1) See also the chapter on "Implementation of the Programme".

The term"objectives" as used in this manual refers to the aims of the course that is being taught. Ultimately, they coincide with the language performance goal adopted for the group of students but they also include short-term aims and aims which the teacher may have in presenting material (e.g., in teaching a particular set of grammatical rules) but which, as viewed by an observer are not so much components of language performance that are being learned as items of language experience that are being made available to the learner. Thus, for instance, the teacher may choose to teach the present continuous tense with performance objectives such that, by the end of the lesson, the learners may be able to say such utterances as, "The boy is walking down the road". "I am opening the door". However, the reality is that, unless the learners are "ready" to acquire that verb form (i.e. it is being taught at the most appropriate time in their developmental schedule), they will almost certainly not use that form in a natural situation outside of the formal classroom. The teacher, in other words, has, perhaps quite correctly, identified the present continuous and its formal mastery as an objective but its teaching has, in reality, been a means of making language experience available to the learner as a way of helping to move him towards the goal of a proficiency of S-1, S-2, W-2, or whatever it might be for that learner.

As emphasized in the chapter on the ALPR, one must be careful to distinguish language proficiency or goals defined in terms of language proficiency from course content or objectives defined in terms of structural, lexical, and functional items.

Although identification of goals and objectives provide one means to ensure coherence in a course, it is not itself enough. Any course necessarily involves a variety of activities; language development by virtue of the sheer complexity of language demands that the learner's skills be developed in a number of directions simultaneously; and a course based on the principle that language is learned through use necessarily entails varied activities if only to maintain interest. Consequently, even though an ultimate goal may be envisaged, fragmentation of the course is a danger and some other integrating principle is desirable.

The view of language learning discussed in the first half of this chapter suggests "community involvement" as an appropriate integrating principle.

In the context of the courses proposed in this manual, "community involvement" suggests that the learners be encouraged to make contact with Australians, that they use the language in learning about their immediate environment and, eventually, the nation. and that the course be structured to meet their immediate (1) and their changing needs. This integrating principle has wide application in second language teaching because of its potential to foster use of the language, to encourage social interaction, to develop favourable cross-cultural attitudes, and to identify the learner's linguistic readiness (i.e., the exponents and functions that are most appropriate to be taught in terms of his need and stage of development). In one form, it has already proved particularly useful in the teaching of languages other than English at an advanced level in a multicultural society (see Ingram 1978, 1978a). The essence of the "community involvement" approach lies in its encouragement of interaction (especially with native speakers) and the feedback from the informal learning this encourages to the formal teaching and learning that support it. The central learning activity is carried by the informal "language in use"/"learning through use" situations while the formal teaching process provides in-class support for it. The teacher's role is essentially that of a facilitator who establishes the appropriate balance of formal and informal learning activities according to the learner's level, suggests appropriate activities, helps the learner to identify his needs at each stage as a result of feedback from trying to use the language, and provides suitable formal learning activities to meet the various needs identified. This relationship between the various course components is shown in Figures 1 and 2.

A functional-notional approach to syllabus design has been adopted in this manual. The teaching of functions (and, in "special purposes" courses, the teaching of registers) poses particular problems for integration. This arises from the fact, though language learning is function learning, the functions are carried by syntax and lexis. If one were to reject the need to grade and to present the syntax of the language systematically, then a solely function-based ordering would be possible. Yet most teachers would accept the need to teach syntactic rules and, in any case, we have already observed that there is evidence that learners naturally develop the syntax systematically, that certain structures are mastered before others, and, in any case, many studies have shown that some formal systematization of syntax is beneficial at lease for adolescent and adult learners (e.g., Von Elek 1975, Von Elek and Oskarsson 1973:8, 9, 26, 39; Nida 1957:41; Seliger 1975:16 Freedman 1975).

One solution to the need to integrate functions (and registers) with syntax and lexis is a modular approach to course design in which the syntax and lexis used in the desired functions are identified, taught separately and then practised in those functions in communication situations. This approach to teaching exponents finds support in McLean's (1975) study in which practising structures in simulated real-life activities that recreated the television situations where they were initially taught was markedly more effective than no follow-up or structural drills.

In planning a unit of work, a three-tier approach is useful (see Figuew 3) involving communication situations, functions, and Syntax

and lexis. Thus, for instance, a party can be considered a communication situation entailing certain functions (e.g., in writing, accepting and declining invitations, greeting, farewelling, and entering, continuing and exiting from conversation) and corollary exponents (e.g., question forms, courtesy features, and such non-verbal features as personal distance, touching, eye-hold, etc.). At a very elementary level, the exponents might be taught in the first module and then practised in subsequent modules as functions are taught and the communication situation experienced. At more advanced levels, a different sequence starting with the communication situation and teaching functions and exponents in response to felt need is preferable. This sort of modular approach "slots into" a community involvement approach since the communication situations chosen can be those to be used in interaction in the community or those needed for "survival" purposes. The interacting and integrated approach to course design is reflected in Figures 1 and 2.

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(1) At the lowest proficiency levels, these may be termed (as in the ALPR) "survival" needs and entail the language that is needed for the learner to be able to "survive" in the L2 community, i.e., to carry out the minimal tasks of everyday life such as buying food, clothing and shelter, finding his way round, using public transport, and so on.

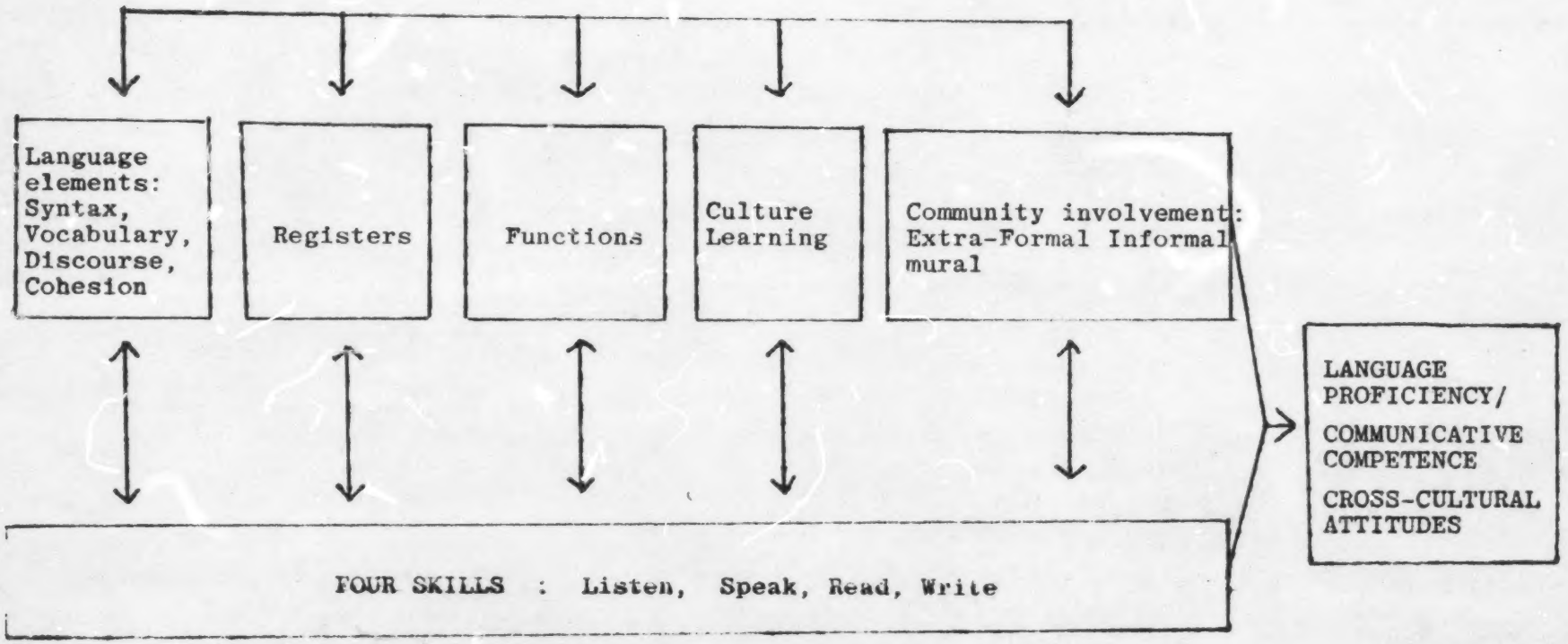
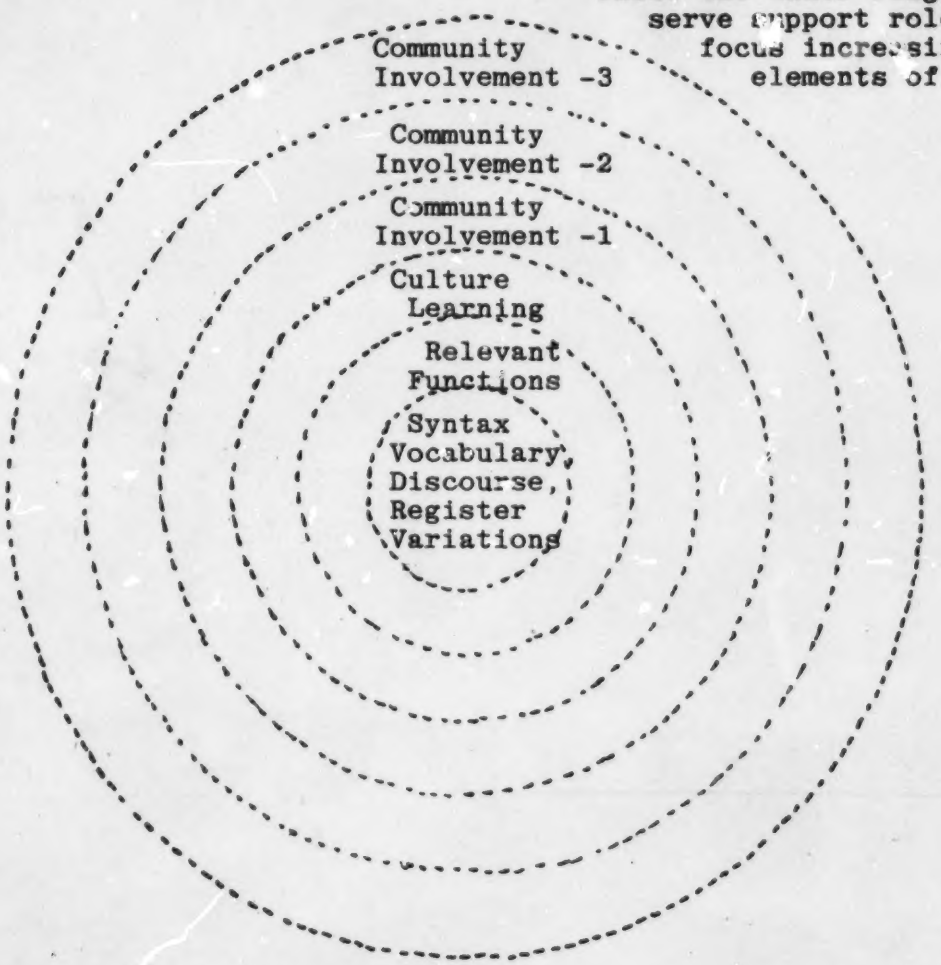


Figure 1: Course Components

Note: This figure shows the extension outwards from formal learning to community involvement and reflects the broadening focus of a course from language elements in increasingly spontaneous use of the langurage eventually in informal social interaction. In terms of learning strategies, however, the outer rings, which focus on use, are most central while the inner rings serve support roles and focus increasingly on elements of the language.



COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT - 1. "Estramural"
Introduced to region and nation: excursions, "survival" situations, etc.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT - 1. Formal:
Interviews, investigations, inquiries (especially to gain information on Australian culture and way of life, social structure, services etc. extending beyond immediate "survival" needs.)

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT - 3. Informal:
Social interactions.

Figure 2: The Place of Community Involvement in an ESL Course

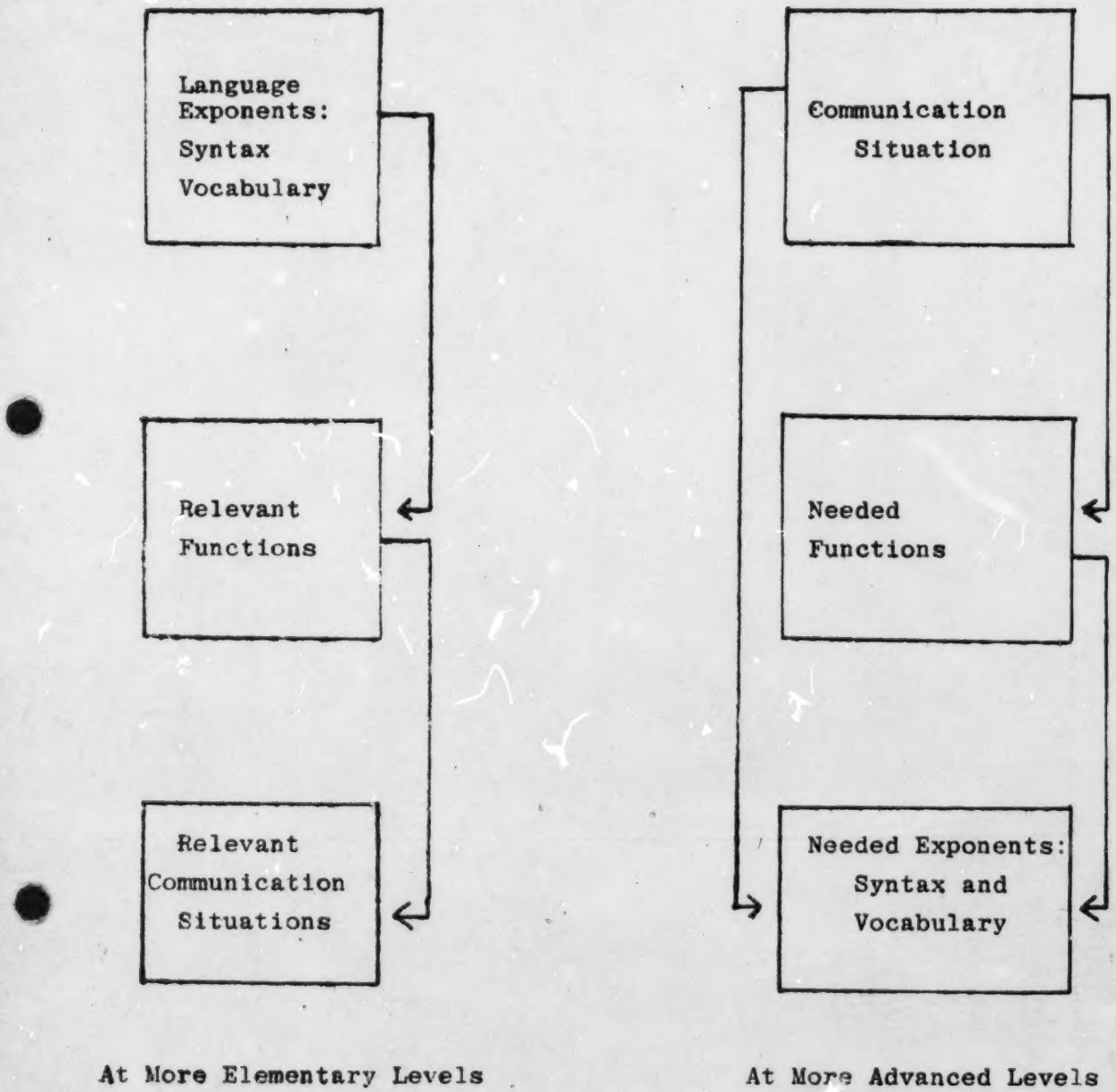

Language Exponents: Syntax Vocabulary
Relevant Functions
Relevant Communication Situations
Communication Situation
Needed Functions
Needed Exponents: Syntax and Vocabulary
At More Elementary Levels
At More Advanced Levels

Figure 3.

In developing methods, the issues discussed in Part 1 of this chapter can be summarized in the following statements:

i) The learner must be actively and purposefully involved.

ii) The learner must have freedom to learn naturally and in his own way while being given any necessary formal support.

iii) The learner must interact as frequently and naturally as possible with speakers of the L2.

These are realized in a number of principles that can guide the teacher in classroom activities.

11.2 *Focus on Use*

Clearly, every opportunity must be taken to provide situations in which the learners use the language for communicative purposes, in particular, in situations that answer immediate "survival" social, leisure or professional needs. Such activities may range from role play to excursions, conversation to debate, games to inquiries, reading to films, culture learning to social events. For school-age learners, it might also come through sitting in on normal school activities (provided that they are recognized as language and culture learning activities and failure to succeed academically is not held against the learner); for all learners, such activities should include meeting informally with Australians. The teacher's task is to seek a variety of activities relevant to the learner's needs, his level of development, and to the knowledge about Australia and life in Australia that he requires. The last of these integrates language learning with culture learning in the broadest sense.

Although experience of using the language can be gained in classroom-based activities, the teacher must ensure that it occurs outside the classroom also and particularly in activities that meet the learner's own needs and give him the general ability and language skills that will enable him to control his own environment and choose and direct his own lifestyle. This comes partly through the type of activities chosen, those that are relevant to the learner's needs (e.g., "survival" activities in elementary on-arrival courses, relevant study skill courses for students, or ESP courses in the learner's own vocational area). In addition, however, the learner must be using the language dynamically to get things done (even while he is learning it) instead of being passively responsive to situations created by the teacher or being engaged in pseudo-conversations answering the teacher's questions.

The activities recommended must not be considered ancillary but as learning activities that contribute to an integrated and coherent total course; they are the activities through which, with the support of more formal activities discussed below, the language is learned. They are designed, in effect, to mobilize the natural learning strategies and to foster favourable attitudes both to the language and its learning and to the English-speaking people with whom they interact (see Ingram 1978: Chapter 5).

The types of activities recommended so far involve "informal" language learning emphasizing "natural" processes and spontaneous language use. Formal methods contribute differently serving the monitoring process and providing data for the natural processes to work on (see 1.2, language variation, functions, the working of traditional language exercises or language laboratory drills. Such activities have very definite limitations, not least of which is the inhibiting effect of conscious attention to language; they must be followed up by less controlled use of the items studied in more spontaneous, learner-initiated utterances in classroom and other communication activities. This will assist the learner to recall the items subsequently and, in behaviouristic terms, to habitualize the application of the rules (cf. Carroll 1971; 1973:359).

11.3 *Focus on Communication*

We have already observed that language is learned as a means of communication. Communication involves self-expression, the initiating of utterances formed by freely selecting amongst one's language repertoire to express one's own ideas, to convey new information, or to establish relationships. It is trivialized where the "information" exchanged is already known to both speaker and listener or where, as in pattern drills, the information content and its transmission to an audience are of negligible significance compared with mechanical practice given. Gouin, a century ago, caricatured such language use, which is often little different in traditional ESL classes today:

> *Now, all these books offer, in reality, nothing but a hideous confusion, a frightful muddle, worse even than the fortuitous sequence of the dictionary. - 'Have you a hat?' - 'Yes, I have a hat.' 'Have you a table?' - 'Yes, I have a table.' 'What knife have you, that of the Englishman or that of the Spaniards?' - 'No, I have the basket of a Jew.'*
>
> (Gouin 1892:90)

Instead of transmitting inert knowledge, methods that foster communication activities turn the learner's attention from the language to his listeners and how to get his ideas across to them. Thus, they encourage him to attend to those aspects of language use which he attends to in his L1, viz., clarification of his ideas and values, clarity of expression, coherence and register modulation. It makes his criterion for success in using language not so much conformity to rules or patterns as the extent to which he gets his meaning across.

Interactive experiences that can promote this include formal and informal discussions, giving and seeking directions, "community involvement" experiences (including, especially, establishing relationships with Australians), excursions where the learner experiences institutions and activities that are part of his survival needs, and general classroom conversation. However, the topics discussed, the freedom granted for the expression of ideas, tolerance of errors, and classroom relationships must permit the conversation to rise above its traditional classroom superficiality and for something of significance to hinge on the success of the communication. In real life, that "something" is self-expression, self-esteem, the speaker's social rule, or some material goal he wants to achieve.

The question of learner errors is relevant to communication since, if the learner's interlanguage is accepted in the same way as a child's non-standard forms, the communication can proceed and at a mature content level. Thus, the range of activities the learner can indulge in can be expanded and he can take the initiative for producing language (instead of being restricted to using memorized utterances controlled for correctness). In this way, his learning processes are stimulated and the need (and, hence, motivation) is created to which language acquisition is the response (cf. Corder 1975). It also ensures that communication and its progressive development remain central through-out L2 teaching and, if it occurs in real-life situations, it ensures that the learner realizes he can, in fact, communicate and gives him the confidence to use the language (and, hence, to learn it).

11.4 *Focus on the Learner*

The effect of the discussion so far is to make the learner central in the teaching-learning process; to turn the focus from the teacher and his formal presentation of language to facilitating learning. The teacher's task is to help the learner to identify his immediate linguistic needs, to structure situations that meet those needs and promote learning, to ensure he has continual opportunities to actively use the language and appropriate formal experiences to support his learning, and to reduce any impediments to his learning (whether they be situational, attitudinal or the result of inappropriate learning methods or expectations).

11.5 *Contextualize the Language*

We have already seen that language exists and is learned in context and that the L2 must also be centred in a social, environmental and purposeful context to be a real language and to be learnable and usable. In addition, by learning and practising the language in a natural situation, its contextual appropriateness is learned and the learner practises mobilizing langauge to match the situation and his purpose. Activities of the sort already proposed (especially role play and simulation exercises, dramatisation, "community involvement", language games, and the use of films and other audiovisual media) contextualize the language. In general, the nearer the situations are to real life, the more satisfactory the contextualization is and the readier the transfer to real life is likely to be.

11.6 *Provide Wide, Diverse Experience*

We have already seen the importance of wide, diverse experience as a learning strategy. In addition, each item has meaning only in relation to other items and to the culture which expresses it and from which it derives its meaning. If the language or even an item is to be meaningful, it must be experienced within the context of a broad cross-section of the language and its culture, i.e., the learner requires wide, diverse experience of the functioning language.

Such experience also increases the frequency with which items are met and, hence, they will be learned and recalled more easily. This diverse experience is obtained as the teacher ensures a variety of activities both within the classroom and outside using all four macroskills, the various forms of media, and the various "community involvement" activities.

11.7 *Practise "Mobilizing" the Language*

As the learner reaches more advanced levels, he will have experienced much of the language and his major problem is not so much learning more as recalling or "mobilizing" what he has already experienced. If Watson's principles of frequency and recency are valid (Hill 1964:37), then the sort of experience just discussed (Par.11.6) will assist. In addition, practice in expressing one's own ideas helps one to match ideas and exponents and to facilitate their recall. In addition, a major difficulty for all learners is knowing how to apply the knowledge they have acquired and it is this problem that function-based courses such as those proposed in this manual are designed to overcome.

11.8 *Individualize Formal Instruction*

The importance of individualization of instruction no longer needs to be argued whatever of education in question. In L2 learning where student's needs and objectives vary considerably and where differing aptitudes and motivation mean that learners will be at different points in the developmental schedule, individualization is even more important especially beyond the early stages. In addition, although common learning strategies can be identified, individual learners differentially favour different strategies and educated adult learners may well have "learned to learn" in distinctive ways. Furthermore, we also observed earlier that, in planning a programme from which the learners will exit at less than native-like proficiency (e.g., the "on-arrival" programmes), teachers must ensure that the methods they adopt encourage the learner to be independent and self-reliant and encourage subsequent learning by developing the learner's ability to learn for himself. An individualized programme can do this if it is planned to encourage the learner to use the second language environment about him, to introspect his own language and needs, and to select subsequent formal learning activities. Active methods supported by individualized formal learning also promote the learner's own subsequent independent learning by developing his natural strategies, innate capacities and sensitivity to language and its forms. In the approach recommended here, there is considerable scope for self-direction and for individual selection of activities and forms of interaction. The teacher's task is to ensure balanced development.

The formal learning recommended earlier is in response to felt need and, therefore, especially at more advanced levels, it should be individualized. It is most readily illustrated with formal grammatical learning. In the course of the various language use activities, the learner will become conscious of the deficiencies in his language: these deficiencies create learning needs which the learner, with the guidance of his teacher, can satisfy by selecting appropriate formal learning activities. Such an individualized programme of formal learning determined by feedback from the learner's general productive

and receptive experience would seem to tap language readiness more effectively (i.e., to be more appropriate to the learner's point in the developmental schedule) than a lock-step programme more or less arbitrarily determined by the teacher or course writer

11.9

The euphoria following the invention of the language laboratory was as misplaced as the more recent cynical backlash. There has been much research into its use (e.g., Smith 1970; Green 1975; Von Elek 1975; Carroll 1967a) and here reference will be made only to some of its more positive benefits.

The language laboratory assists with any learning that is repetitive or involves rote memory and where that is played down (as in the methodology proposed here) its "drilling" function is of less significance. Nevertheless, it probably has a place in habitualizing the application of formally learned grammatical rules. Its greatest value, however, is in letting each student work at his own rate as he listens to or works on data that will give him experience of the language in general or of specific functions, registers or exponents. It lets him ponder over the data (cf. Ingram 1978:389-391) and lets him make maximum use of listening as a learning strategy. In addition, language laboratory "drills" need not be just passive repetition but can be function-based as the learner responds to utterances by performing specified tasks (e.g., refute, agree, query, etc.). Nevertheless, in using a lab., a learner is essentially talking to a machine and communication does not occur. Hence, its role for practice is restricted and everything "drilled" in the lab. must be re-experienced in situations where its communication function is significant.

111. *Teaching the Course Components*

It is not proposed to discuss in detail how the various components of a course should be taught. (1) Instead, the general principles which have already been discussed will be applied to each major component and some distinctive features of each observed.

111.1 *Community Involvement*

We have already seen that "community involvement" or "interaction" plays a central and integrating role in the approach to language teaching discussed here. The term "community" refers both to the speakers of English in the society and to the environment (i.e., the geographical environment, the society and its infrastructure) that surround the educational institution, migrant hostel, etc. Three types of community involvement activities can be identified: extramural, formal and informal.

Extramural Activities Activities

Extramural activities extend the practice of the language beyond the classroom in activities closely related to other course components. These include excursions. Use of radio broadcasts, talks in the L2, and practical experience of the "survival" and other situations around which the course (especially its function-teaching) is based. Such activities help the learner to see the environment through the language he is learning, to re-think his experience in terms of the L2, to practise it purposefully, to develop skills useful in other community involvement activities, and to relate the classroom learning to everday life.

(1) Refer also to the chapter on "Implementing the Programme".

Formal Activities

In formal community involvement activities, the learner has some specific inquiry to make in the English-speaking community. This form of activity ensures that the learner makes contact with English-speaking Australians (and, incidentally, ensures that English-speaking Australians meet migrants with beneficial effects on the attitudes and social acceptance of both groups (1). The activities chosen should be such that they extend the learners' understanding of the culture and way-of-life of Australians, the structure of society and the organization of industry, business and commerce and enable them to increase their knowledge of the basic information needed to live comfortably in Australia and to profit from its services. This form of activity supplements the culture teaching of the formal class and the presentation of "survival" knowledge, integrates it with language learning, and ensures that the new arrivals gain the confidence and knowledge to enable them to seek the information they need to settle successfully in Australia. In that they are learning by doing, they are more likely to be aware of and able subsequently to use the various information sources and aid services that exist in the Australian community. They also learn how to approach ordinary Australians for such assistance. In particular, their language learning benefits in the ways already indicated from such "learning through use" activity.

Informal Activities

Informal activities are particularly important for the development of successful social relationships and friendships with Australians (see Ingram 1978:Ch.5, pp.584-586 and 1978a where their role in developing cross-cultural attitudes is discussed). For this reason, they are vitally important for the social and emotional well-being of migrants, for their sence of acceptance in Australian society, and to enable them to learn to use their L2 in establishing informal relationships and friendships. In addition, they ensure that the learner experiences registers of the language that are important in everyday life but are rarely experienced in a natural manner in the formal classroom.

Informal community involvement activities may take many forms in the same way as recreational and social activities may. They might arise spontaneously out of contacts made during the formal activities or they could occur in social activities (parties, barbecues, excursions, etc.) organized by the school or teachers and including Australians amongst the guests or organized by some welfare organization (such as the local Multicultural Task Force, an Ethnic Community, the Good Neighbour Council where it still exists, a church organization, and so on).

111.2 *Syntax*

The entire programme is, of course, concerned with langauge development and from one narrow perspective all language learning involves the learning of syntax or how to put words together to form utterances.

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(1) The role of language teaching and interaction in changing cross-cultural attitudes is too complex and contentious to be discussed here. See Ingram 1978 and 1978a for a fuller discussion.

Syntax is learned by both formal and informal means. Informal "learning through use" activities have been strongly stressed because

they stimulate natural learning processes and because they identify areas of need and the learner's own stage of development. Formal learning of syntax should respond to the needs identified and capitalize on the increased motivation to learn that results from matching teaching with needs. The balance between formal and informal teaching will depend on the learner"s stage of development, it being arguable that, in the earliest stages, formal teaching assumes more importance since the learner's slight experience of the language means he has too few resources to engage in many informal"learning through use" activities. However, formal methods taken to excess or not used in response to real needs identified through feedback from use perpetuate the passive "digestive" approach (cf. Freire 1970:26) which has been criticized earlier. Where formal learning of rules or patterns occurs, it must be followed by much practice to habitualize the application of the rules learned and to enable "informal" learning also to occur. In brief, the approach to grammatical learning advocated here is to let the learner experience a great variety of linguistic forms and, at appropriate times, to focus on needed rules to elucidate their function and to practice their application.

Formal learning of grammatical rules has essentially two components:

(i) understanding the form of the rule and of the utterances that incorporate it and (ii) learning to apply the rule spontaneously. "Traditional" and audiolingual methods each concentrated on one of these activities. Evidence has already been referred to that some formal discussion or rationalisation of syntax is beneficial (see Par.11.1) "Drills" (not only audiolingual pattern drills but any exercise that gives frequent experience of a structure) serve several purposes: first, the habitualization of the application of a rule, as already discussed (cf. Carroll 1971); second, they assist in the retention of formally learned, abstract rules and make them more concrete in examples; third, they provide a structured environment where perception of a rule or linguistic principle is facilitated; fourth, they provide an opportunity for the learner to "mull over" data in order to intuit and elucidate the rules he is learning (see Ingram 1978:389-391); and, fifth, they may help to stabilize rules and overcome performance errors. Nevertheless, it must be realized that drills too often become passive, fail to cause the physiological arousal that is pre-requisite to learning (see Lee et al. 1970; Briere 1971:391), and there is little firm evidence that they effectively promote language learning. Both drills and formal discussion of rules can be justified only when they constitute a response to satisfy a felt need of the learner, when they are followed up in real-life communication, and when drills are structured to cause positive, initiating involvement in a surrogate communication act (see the reference to function-based drills in Par. 11.9).

At more advanced levels, it is important for the learner to develop his ability to handle complex utterances. Linguistic complexity is partly determined by the length of utterances, the number of syntactic rules needed to generate them, the number of functions carried by the utterance, the ideational content and its familiarity to the speaker or listener, the discourse structure and the extent to which it is marked, the cultural distance between the speaker/writer and listener/reader, the incidence of nominalization, and the familiarity of the register used, its function, lexis and syxtax.

Since the listener/reader cannot control others' production, the ability to produce complex sentence or textual structures is less important than the ability to comprehend them. Nevertheless, the demands of self-expression, argument, the qualification of ideas and the expectations of different, especially, more formal, registers require that more advanced learners develop flexibility in sentence and discourse patterns.

Like fluency and accuracy, complexity is sensitive to context but it is also, to some extent, a natural outcome of the learner's increasing memory for the L2, his familiarity with the syntax (especially its potential for embedding), and with the culture the language subsumes. Ability to handle complex syntax may be developed by specific practice in combining and embedding utterances (especially in writing) though the limitations of formal exercises should be observed. Deliberate teaching to develop ability to use the markers of discourse and cohesion may also assist (see Par. 111.5) In addition, natural adult language is "pluri-functional" (Halliday 1974: 31; 1975:158) but the ability to handle such complex language connot be developed in the controlled, semantically and contextually sterile classroom but only in interaction with people in real-life situations.

111.3 *Vocabulary*

The general principles of language learning and teaching apply as much to vocabulary development as to other aspects of language learning. Vocabulary also is learned through use in that the attempt to communicate, to express ideas and to learn about the environment creates the need for vocabulary (cf. Halliday 1975:43). This need leads to a search for lexical items to match conceptual categories and thus to satisfy communication needs; the subsequent use of the item assists its retention and later mobilization and enables the learner to test out the semantic, categorical and contextual flexibility of the word.

Words name concepts and consequently vocabulary development is inseparable from learning how native speakers classify and categorize reality, i.e., L2 learning and vocabulary development in particular are associated with the acquisition of the L2 model of the world (see Elias and Ingram 1977:esp. Chapter 2). In other words, successful vocabulary learning is dependent on the learner's learning to see the world as a native speaker does and language must, therefore, be seenas culture learning and the two, language and culture learning, taught together is an integrated programme. In addition, approaches to vocabulary learning that encourage the learner to see the relationships between concepts and between words are desirable . (O'Rourke (1974) emphasizes the value of etymological approaches that show the derivational origins of and relationships between words and which also show/how words are constructed).

The more associative links or networks that can be made with a vocabulary item, the more recall is facilitated. Such links might be between one word and other experiences or between words. Gouin (1892), for example, advocated a "series" method in which actions were learned in linked series (e.g., all the actions involved in going to and opening a door). Exercises which let the learner make substitutions in texts and observe the effect they have on meaning help to set up associations

between words in a semantic field. O'Rourke (1974) advocates a "mental filing system" where words are classified under general topics to facilitate their remembering and recall, there would seem to be advantage in the learner's acquiring, first, more general items and, subsequently, more specific ones. Again, the need to create a network of associations emphasizes the desirability of wide experience of the language in a variety of situations.

111.4 *Functions*

The whole basis of the approach recommended here is that language is learned by being used to achieve desired purposes and that learners have to learn not only language exponents but also how to mobilize them to carry out desired language tasks. The approach recommended is, then, a functional approach in which the tasks learners need to achieve are identified and the language to be taught is selected accordingly. In this way, the learner is taught not only the syntax and vocabulary but how to mobilize and structure them in achieving language tasks. Reference has already been made (Par. 11.1) to some approaches in which the teaching of functions and exponents may be integrated. The activities already recommended (especially the various forms of community involvement) isolate functions for teaching. In addition, videotapes or recordings can be used to show the functions in natural situations and can be followed by simulation activities or role play. The whole approach to the syllabus design and methods recommended in this manual is function-based and no further explicit discussion is required here.

111.5 *Discourse and Cohesion*

Discourse relates to the suprasentence structuring of a text and cohesion to the semantic relation realized through the words and grammar (cf. Halliday and Hasan 1976:5-18). The devices that mark them (connectives, for example, for discourse and pronouns and verb endings for cohesion) serve to relate parts of texts and are important in marking the development of thought sequence or the lines of argument through the text. Learners can be helped to perceive and use the features of discourse and cohesion by exercises that foreground their relational functions to aid in comprehension. Thus, lines can be drawn into a reading text to mark the discourse structure and the relationships it marks or to show the cohesion marked in a text. (1) A text can be re-typed with the sentences in random order and the learner can be asked to re-write them correctly. (2) The learner can be given parts of utterances (e.g., *Because it was raining,...)* and be asked to postulate the rest. (3) Précis and paraphrase exercises or monologue imitating a native speaker's speech encourage the learner to observe discourse structure, the relationships it marks, and the key ideas it highlights.

111.6 *The Sound System and Paralinguistics*

The general principles already enunciated apply equally strongly to the teaching of the sound system (including suprasegmentals) viz., much aural experience, productive use of the language in communication, and feedback from use leading to formal attention to weaknesses. Some explanation of how the native-like sounds are formed may help learners (especially adults) to monitor their own pronunciation and correct their articulation.

Much has been written on the formal teaching of pronunciation (e.g. in *Situational English)* and it is not proposed to discuss it further here.

The non-verbal paralinguistic features require attention although, especially for reasons of empathy and identification, they are particularly difficult for adults to acquire. At the very least, learners should have pointed out to them those which are likely to cause misunderstanding or offence if used inappropriately, e.g., personal distance, taught and practised as integral parts of learning the language.

111.7 *Registers*

All language teaching implies some overt or tacit choice of register though, in the early stages (e.g. up to Level 2 on the ALPR Scales). For natural language use, learners must learn to vary their language according to situational constraints (e.g., who, where, when, and on what topic they are speaking or writing). The "community involvement" activities proposed ensure that learners experience varied situations and various relationships with other people instead of just the stylized relationships of a classroom. In this way, they are more likely to become sensitive to the factors that determine register modulations though the teacher, through formal discussion and simulation or role to play exercises, can also provide formal practice in modulating language to meet register requirements.

One effect of register that requires particular attention is the teaching of English for Special Purposes. The general methodological principles of L2 teaching also apply to ESP except that the range of language chosen is narrower. It should, of course, be noted that register is not just a matter of vocabulary but also of syntax, discourse, and functions. The teaching of special registers becomes vitally important for migrants wishing to enter tertiary institutions or their vocation and, for such persons, the specific teaching of the appropriate register is highly desirable.

111.8 *The Four Macroskills*

The components of the language discussed above and the general principles by which they are learned do not exist in isolation but are realized in activities which develop one or other of the "macroskills" of listening, speaking, reading, or writing. In Australian society, all four macroskills are important and some ability in each is essential. Nevertheless, the weight to be given to oral or written skills will clearly depend on the needs of the individual students. In addition, the sort of approach recommended here provides many opportunities for an integrated approach to skill development. Thus, for instance, community involvement activities not only provide meaningful opportunities for listening and speaking but also for writing (in arranging contacts, thanking hosts, etc.) While much can be written about the distinctive learning and teaching characteristics of each macroskill, the general principles enunciated apply to all of them and a more detailed discussion will not be undertaken. The reader might, however, refer to the classified reading list for other sources of ideas to follow up.

111.9 *Culture Teaching*

It has already been emphasized that language teaching and

culture teaching are inseparable. In addition to formal knowledge about Austalia given by traditional means (talks, films, excursions, reading, etc.), the community envolvement activities provide opportunities for much culture learning to take place. This occurs incidentally as the learner learns to cope with the "survival" situations, as the "extramural activities" provide him with controlled experience of the Australian environment, and, most of all, as he interacts with Australians.

It is essential in structuring a culture learning course that the learner receive a broad and systematic understanding of Australian culture. In the first instance, "survival" needs will dictate the most urgent things to be understood (e.g., road usage, health services, monetary system, etc.) and curiosity will highlight the odd and interesting. However, undue focus on atypical trivia or on one part of the culture (e.g., Australians' supposed alcoholic tendencies, mateship, sport, fine arts, or the use of invectives) is undesirable and cannot develop balanced cultural understanding. Interaction with a variety of native speakers can help to restore balance as the learner comes to see a general cultural pattern within which each person is an individual.

111.10 *Attitudinal Development*

No attempt has been made in this chapter to discuss the learner's attitudinal development. To do so would necessitate more than another chapter to account for the factors that determine how the migrant can be helped to settle into his new country. It can, however, be observed that he is settling in a multicultural society, one which persons of different languages, cultures and races are living together. A successful, fruitful and harmonious life in such a society is dependent on all members of the society learning to accept the rights of others to be different and, more positively, to adopt attitudes that enable each one to benefit from the cultural resources the society provides. The methods proposed in this chapter not only enhance second language learning but also are propitious for the development of favourable cross-cultural attitudes (see Ingram 1978:esp. Chapters 5 and 6; 1978).

IV *Conclusion*

The approach to methodology recommended in this chapter turns the focus of the teaching-learning process onto the learner, responding to his needs and integrating the language into his cognition and personality. It capitalizes on his natural language learning processes, gives him freedom to adopt and develop his own learning style, and supports that learning with formal, in-class activities. In particular, the methodology recommended recognizes that language is learned through use and, especially, through social interaction. Motivation to learn is enhanced as the learner sees his real needs being met and sees himself acquiring the ability through successful, practical mastery of the language to attain those goals that he has set for himself in coming to this country. While a support role remains for formal teaching in the classroom, it has continually been emphasized that teaching must be extended outside of the classroom first to ensure that the learner's real

especially "survival", needs are met; second, to encourage natural language learning processes to operate; third, because in the classroom there is an inevitable tendency to concentrate on the formal properties of the language at the expense of communication (cf. Corder 1975); fourth, because, out of the classroom, less formal and stylized interpersonal relationship can exist more easily; and, fifth, because, outside, there is often more contextual support from paralinguistic features and from the environment. In brief, the central features of this approach to second language teaching methodology are summarized in:

Focus on the learner

Focus on use

Focus on social interaction

Respond to the learner's felt needs.

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